A DESCRIPTIVE STUDY OF CORRECTIVE DISCOURSE IN TURKISH PREPARATORY SCHOOL EFL CLASSROOMS

A THESIS
SUBMITTED TO THE FACULTY OF HUMANITIES AND LETTERS
AND THE INSTITUTE OF ECONOMICS AND SOCIAL SCIENCES
OF BİLKENT UNIVERSITY
IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS
FOR THE DEGREE OF MASTER ARTS

BY
GÜLİNEZ MUSAYEVA
AUGUST 1998

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IN THE TEACHING OF ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE

Gulshen Musayeva
tarafından teğişlanmıştır.

BY

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ABSTRACT

Title: A Descriptive Study Of Corrective Discourse In Turkish Preparatory School EFL Classrooms
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Error treatment is of fundamental concern to classroom research as it presents a universal and permanent problem for teachers in all language classrooms.

The present study investigated oral corrective discourse in Turkish preparatory EFL classrooms at BUSEL, Bilkent University, Ankara, Turkey. It was a descriptive case study which took a naturalistic enquiry approach. This study was classroom-centered and was carried out within the framework of a discourse analysis tradition (Chaudron, 1977). The main focus was on the corrective feedback provided by two Turkish EFL teachers to four classes comprising seventyfour Turkish EFL students. The study employed a comprehensive strategy of data and methodological triangulation, namely, classroom observation, teachers' interviews, and students' questionnaires. It considered a number of research questions.

The first research question concerned the way oral errors were treated in the Turkish EFL classes. The study revealed that both Turkish EFL teachers exhibited a particular corrective feedback profile in their classrooms, with **acceptance** (showing acceptance of students' erroneous responses), and **ignore** (ignoring students' erroneous responses) corrective reactions being the most frequent ones, thus exemplifying non-intervention when their students committed an oral language error.

The second research question regarded the EFL teachers' actual corrective feedback provided to the students and their stated preferences for errror treatment. The teachers' actual corrective feedback showed that their concern for oral production and communication overrode concern for linguistic errors, which agreed with their expressed preferences for error treatment.

The third research question pertained to the EFL students' preferences for the amount and type of corrective feedback. The Turkish students preferred to be corrected more often than their teachers assumed,

and indicated low or no preference for those corrective reactions (**acceptance** and **ignore**) which were frequently used by their teachers. However, both EFL teachers also employed those corrective strategies which were identified as mostly preferred by their students.

The fourth research question related the Turkish students' preferences for corrective feedback and the EFL teachers' actual error treatment in the setting. The study demonstrated a small degree of agreement between the Turkish students' preferences and the EFL teachers' decisions for providing corrective feedback. The Turkish students indicated that they wanted to be corrected more than their teachers did correct or assumed they should correct. Both EFL teachers considered semantic errors the most important to treat while their students expressed preference for other types of errors. However, the Turkish students shared their teachers' preferences for the corrective strategies employed in their classes.

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MA THESIS EXAMINATION RESULT FORM

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The examining committee appointed by the
Institute of Economics and Social Sciences for the
thesis examination of the MA TEFL student

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has read the thesis of the student.
The committee has decided that the thesis
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We certify that we have read this thesis and that in our combined opinion it is fully adequate, in scope and in quality, as a thesis for the degree of Master of Arts.

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CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

Background of the Problem

Teachers are traditionally expected to treat learners' errors, to provide feedback regarding correctness or appropriateness of their responses. And they actually do correct errors, often exhibiting inconsistency and lack of clarity, displaying unawareness of various feedback options available to them.

Developing teachers' awareness of various corrective techniques and sensitivity to their functions, seeking for the most appropriate corrective strategy in a particuilar interactional situation can aid teachers in guiding to or eliciting their learners' correct performance.

Purpose of the Study

The present study investigated oral corrective discourse in Turkish EFL classrooms. The purpose of this study was to observe and describe teacher and student interaction behaviors, specifically their actual corrective interaction in constructing oral corrective discourse in Turkish EFL classrooms.

In the view of many researchers and practitioners interaction comprises conversation and instructional exchanges between teachers and students. Corrective discourse is seen as a cooperative enterprise, a process of negotiation in which teacher and students collaborate in managing corrective interactional tasks in the language classroom.

Problem Statement and Research Questions

Error treatment is a crucial aspect of teacher-student interaction. This problem is a fundamental concern to language classroom researchers and practitioners. Error treatment is usually defined in terms of teachers' attempts to handle errors concurrent with their occurrence in language learning. The present study concerned error treatment in Turkish EFL classrooms. It focused on the corrective feedback provided by the EFL teachers to the Turkish students. Corrective feedback is referred to teacher's attempts to supply learners with information about the correctness of their production (Long, 1977). This study considered the following research questions:

1. How is corrective feedback provided by Turkish teachers in an EFL

setting?

2. What are the EFL teachers' decisions and preferences for providing corrective feedback?

3. What are the Turkish students' preferences for the teacher's corrective feedback?

4. What is the relationship between the Turkish students' preferences and the EFL teacher's decisions for providing corrective feedback?

The first research question concerned the way oral errors were treated in the Turkish EFL classes and included such issues as:

- Should learner errors be treated?
- When should learner errors be treated?
- Which learner errors should be treated?
- How should learner errors be treated?
- Who should treat learner errors?

The second research question regarded the EFL teachers' actual corrective feedback provided to the students and their stated preferences, that is what, when and how they believed to treat errors.

The third research question pertained to finding out the EFL students' preferences for the amount and type of corrective feedback provided by the EFL teachers.

The fourth research question related the EFL students' preferences for corrective feedback and the EFL teachers' actual error treatment in the setting.

Limitation and Delimitation of the Study

The study was conducted at BUSEL, Bilkent University School of English Language, Ankara, Turkey.

The limitation of the study was that it limited the population to which the study can be generalized and involved two Turkish EFL (English as a foreign language) teachers and seventy-four Turkish students.

The delimitation of the study was that it employed a comprehensive strategy of data and methodological triangulation (Denzin, 1970), namely, classroom observation, teachers' interviews and students' questionnaires. This strategy permitted the researcher to avoid deficiences of any single source of data and to obtain different perspectives on the Turkish EFL

classrooms observed.

The present study aimed at extracting and making low-level inferences about oral corrective discourse in the Turkish EFL classroom. It was carried out within the framework of classroom-centered research in the area of error treatment.

Such a descriptive study can contribute to building up an accurate record of the real life Turkish EFL classroom, provide EFL teachers with some helpful insights as to how to treat errors with regard to students' preferences for the teacher's corrective feedback.

CHAPTER 2 LITERATURE REVIEW

History of the Problem

Error Treatment as a Classroom Problem

Error treatment is one of the main areas of the professional and practical interest of classroom research, since it presents a universal and permanent problem for teachers in all language classrooms. Indeed, error treatment studies comprise a considerable part of classroom research (Allwright, 1975; Chaudron, 1986a; Gaies, 1977; Hendrickson, 1978; Holley and King, 1975; Hughes and Lascaratou, 1982; Kasper, 1985; McTear, 1975; Nystrom, 1983; Stenson, 1975). The findings of the research to date reveal conceptual and practical complexities of the problem.

Error treatment is generically used to refer to attempts to handle errors concurrent with their occurrence in language learning. More specifically, error treatment is viewed as:

-any teacher behavior following an error that minimally attempts to inform the learner of the fact of error;

-treatment which is explicit enough to elicit (or which makes great effort to elicit) a revised student response;

-"true" correction which succeeds in modifying the learner's interlanguage rule so that the error is eliminated from further production (Chaudron, 1977, p. 31).

Oral error research examines the errors actually committed by learners in language classrooms, and considers such important issues as: Why do language learners make errors? Are errors concomitant with language learning? How do teachers treat errors in language classrooms? Does error treatment facilitate learners' progress towards the target language?

The Main Conceptual Problem

Treatment versus cure.

The main conceptual problem of error treatment is that of "treatment" versus "cure". The error treatment provided by the teacher in actual language classrooms does not necessarily result in a permanent cure of the error committed by the learner. In spite of the amount and type of error treatment on the part of the teacher and its possible immediate effect on the learner's language behavior, it is only the learner who is responsible

for the "cure", i.e. "true correction."

Error treatment comprising any reaction by the teacher that clearly transforms, disapprovingly refers to, or demands improvement has been adopted as a basis for most research (Chaudron, 1977). Long (1977) considers an operational definition of error treatment and proposes a distinction between feedback and correction. He refers feedback to teacher's attempts to supply learners with information about the correctness of their production, whereas correction is viewed as the result of feedback (i.e., its effects on learning).

The concept of feedback.

The concept of feedback has been borrowed by the classroom-centered research from information and communication theories, which view feedback as the information on the reception and comprehension of the message, derived from interlocutors in any communicative exchange. The following functions have been ascribed to feedback, or "knowledge of results": motivating, reinforcing, and informative functions (Annett, 1969). In language learning, feedback performs cognitive and affective functions (Vigil and Oller, 1976). Cognitive feedback is information about the language being used, while affective feedback conveys emotional reactions to the speaker's response and signals as to the interlocutor's desire or willingness to continue communicating. Two types of feedback are provided simultaneously to the language learners in most communicative settings.

In language classrooms teachers having superior knowledge and status are supposed and expected to provide feedback, and they do usually strive to deliver positive feedback -- positive sanctions or approval of learner's language production, and negative feedback in case of error commission.

Thus, the exceptional right to the floor in formal instruction is resultant in feedback-evaluation, which is the final move in the classic exchange cycle of classroom discourse: teacher initiation/structuring move, soliciting move, student response move, teacher reacting move (Bellack, Kliebard, Hyman and Smith, 1966; Sinclair and Coulthard, 1975). "Teachers are expected to execute their vested instructional authority to evaluate any and all student behavior, non-verbal or verbal. . . . no matter what the teacher does, learners derive information about their behavior from the

teacher's reaction, or lack of any" (Chaudron, 1988, pp. 132-133).

Given the multiple functions of corrective feedback, and faced with the problem of accepting learners' errors, teachers find themselves in a paradoxical situation when they have to decide whether to interrupt classroom interaction out of consideration for formal language instruction or not to treat errors so as to promote communication.

The general picture of error treatment emerging from language classroom research is that although many teachers do explicitly "correct" errors, their attempts are in fact potentially inconsistent, misleading, ambiguous if perceived at all, ill-timed and ineffective in the short run (Allwright, 1975; Chaudron, 1986b, 1988; Long, 1977; McTear, 1975; Mehan, 1974; Stokes, 1975; Walmsley, 1978). Hendrickson (1978) provides a review of research on second language classroom oral error treatment, considers the causes, and proposes positive solutions to problems with corrective feedback. The consensus among the researchers into the problem is that error treatment should be kept consistent within a focused domain of types of errors.

However, further investigation is needed to find out the potential effect of corrective feedback on learners' progress to the target language.

The concept of error.

Theoretical background on the concept of error reveals its complexity in language learning. Various definitions of error, proposed by the researchers refer the notion of error to the production of a linguistic form deviant from the correct-target language form. Language learners' oral production usually does not conform to the target language model they aim to study, and any discrepancies in this respect have been considered as errors. Chaudron (1986b, p. 66) proposes the following definition of error: linguistic forms or content that differed from native speaker norms or facts and any other behavior signalled by the teacher as needing improvement.

Classroom process researchers have employed a wide range of categories of errors. Corder (1967) discriminates between mistakes -- accidental lapses in performance resulting from inattention and errors -- deviations from the target language norms that occurred as a result of a

lack of knowledge. Learners are able to self-correct their mistakes, errors should be treated by teachers. Burt and Kiparsky (1974) distinguish global errors violating rules of the overall structure of a sentence from local errors involving mistakes in a particular constituent of a sentence. James (1974) expresses similar views in his concept of error gravity based on the number and the nature of the rules that were transgressed. The graver an error, the more it warrants correction. Edmondson (1986, quoted in Ellis, 1991) makes a distinction between T-errors -- any discourse act which the teacher treats explicitly or implicitly as erroneous and, a U-error -- any learner utterance which deviates from target language norms.

In order to find out how language learning process proceeds and on the basis of the strategies adopted by learners a number of error taxonomies have been proposed by the researchers. Although there is some overlap among the categories of errors, such attempts to identify and classify errors are valuable as they ascribe a new stature to errors -- systematic deviations made by the learners who have not yet mastered the rules of the target language. Richards (1974) distinguishes interlingual errors, which could be traced back to the learner's first language, intralingual errors, occurring regardless of it and considers over-generalization errors, caused by the learners' failure to observe boundaries of a rule. George (1972) discriminates simplification or redundancy reduction errors. Selinker (1972) labels those errors which result when speakers invoke communication strategies as communication-based errors. Stenson (1974, quoted in Ellis, 1991) considers induced errors, which are brought about by a teacher's sequencing or presenting two linguistic items in a way which creates confusion in the mind of the language learner.

In order to account for errors occurring in the process of language learning and acquisition, the concept of "interlanguage" has been introduced (Selinker, 1972). Interlanguage is seen as a continuum with the first and the target language at the opposing poles. The continuum is marked by a series of fluctuating stages delineated by the types of errors learners make at any given stage. Thus, in the process of language learning learners progress in their interlanguage development.

Errors in the process of language learning may occur as a result of hypothesis testing or fossilization. Hypothesis testing presents posing and testing a hypothesis. Learners try a new target language form, alter their hypotheses, test new ones, promoted by the corresponding feedback or continue with the original idea of successful communication (Tarone, 1981, quoted in Allwright and Bailey, 1991).

Fossilization -- the consistent use of recognizably erroneous forms can also account for the language learners' errors, when their inter-language gets stuck with a fixed system of linguistic forms deviant from the target language model (Brown, 1987, quoted in Allwright and Bailey, 1991).

The determination of errors is a complex process dependent on a number of factors:

-the immediate context of the utterance in question;

-an understanding of the content of the lesson;

-the intent of the teacher or student;

-and at times the prior learning of the students (Chaudron, 1986b).

The Main Practical Problem

The main practical problem is what amount and type of corrective feedback should be provided to the learner (i.e. teachers' decision making regarding errors) in order to promote their advance to the target language.

The research on teacher treatment of learner errors has discovered considerable variation in this respect: teachers do not treat all the errors committed by the learners, sometimes treat them inconsistently, displaying ambiguity and lack of clarity.

Given a wide range of corrective techniques available for error treatment, a language teacher usually faces a problem of decision making regarding provision of appropriate corrective feedback.

Should learner errors be treated?

The first issue involves decision making concerning whether to treat or to ignore oral errors. The decision making in this case can be determined by many factors: the teacher's philosophy, the main focus of the lesson, the teacher's and the learner's level of target language proficiency, the learner's stage on the interlanguage continuum.

Ludwig (1982, quoted in Allwright and Bailey, 1991) in his review of error gravity carried out on the basis of several languages observes that non-teaching native speakers are more tolerant to learners' errors than are native speaker language teachers. In addition, non-native speaking teachers are more severe in their corrective reactions to learners' erroneous responses than are their native speaking colleagues.

If a language teacher decides to ignore the given error, the erroneous response on the part of one learner might serve as an erroneous input to her peers, the whole class, to the learner herself, or might even lead to the modification of the existing correct hypotheses (Schmidt and Frota, 1986).

Language learners usually expect and require error treatment. Hendrickson (1978) himself provides a positive answer to the should-issue with the argument following the hypothesis-testing rationale. Cathcart and Olsen (1976) discovered learners' strong preferences for actual error treatment. Another study (Chenoweth, Day, Chun and Lupescu, 1983) obtained similar findings.

However, learners' preferences should not be the only criterion for decision making whether to treat errors or not.

The problem so far is to take into account all possible factors, to counterbalance them, and to conduct further research into the problem of error treatment efficacy.

When should learner errors be treated?

The second issue involves decision making concerning the timing of the teacher's reacting move following the learner's erroneous response. A language teacher must make decisions as to the actual behavioral manifestation of corrective feedback following commission of the error: to treat an error immediately (to interrupt the learner), to delay treatment (until the learner finishes with her response), or to postpone it (to provide error treatment later on during the lesson).

Given these options, some problems might arise for teachers in the language classroom. First, immediate error treatment can negatively affect the learner and discourage her to speak in future. Second, postponed treatment can be less effective in the language classroom, because as Long

notes (1977, p.290), the psychology research literature shows that feedback becomes less effective as the time between the performance of the skill and the feedback increases.

A number of studies of error treatment in second language classroom have considered the degree to which teachers treat errors (Chaudron, 1986a; Courchene, 1980; Fanselow, 1977b; Hamayan and Tucker, 1980; Lucas, 1975; Nystrom, 1983; Salica, 1981) and demonstrated some patterns and trends supporting Hendrickson's conclusion (1978) that error treatment should be confined more to "manipulative grammar practice" leaving communicative activities free from a focus on error correction. The findings from these studies of error treatment reported the relative amount of errors ignored: Hamayan and Tucker (1980) -- 4-36%; Lucas (1975) -- 10-15%; Nystrom (1983) -- 13-24%; Salica (1981), Courchene (1980) -- 42-49%.

However, these findings are discrepant with those obtained by Fanselow (1977b) -- the average of only 18% ignored errors, and Chaudron (1986a) -- 40% of the overall average frequency of ignored errors.

Schmidt and Frota (1986) interpret Krashen's concept of "i + 1" (1982, pp. 20-29) in terms of corrective feedback which "juxtaposes the learner's form "i" with the target language form "i + 1" so that the learner is put in an ideal position to notice the gap. The principle of noticing the gap presupposes the learner's awareness of the gap between the erroneous and the target language forms before altering her output. The researchers claim that such a conscious awareness might lead to learners' improved performance.

Another problem arising here is whether learners need to notice the gap. The teacher's job in this respect would be to choose the optimum moment for providing error treatment when learners are most open to noticing the gap. As Pienemann (1984, quoted in Ellis, 1991) suggested in his "learnability theory," that learners at any given stage will find "learnable" only those items that are at the next stage of their language development for which they are ready. Teachers can promote learners' progress through developmental stages, but not bypassing them altogether.

The next problem arising is whether awareness on the part of both teachers and learners is the practical problem of communication as well as

of behavior (Tannacito, personal communication).

Fanselow (1977b) advocates that teachers should implement all kinds of treatment dependent on their learners' needs, and should keep on trying out different possibilities in order to find out what works in classroom.

Future research into the problem would have to show differential effectiveness for error treatment at various times following commission of the error.

Which learner errors should be treated?

The third issue involves decision making concerning what types of errors should be treated.

Hendrickson (1978) advances the following criteria for error treatment:

-errors that impair communication significantly;

-errors that have highly stigmatizing effects on the listener;

-errors that occur frequently in students' speech and writing.

Although these criteria have not been empirically supported yet, they might be applied for differentiating errors in communicative interaction.

Error treatment studies (Chaudron, 1986a; Courchene, 1980; Fanselow, 1977b; Lucas, 1975; Salica, 1981) provide data on relative proportions of types of error and amount of their treatment. Although the researchers adopted slightly different criteria for error categorization, findings from these studies concur in general proportion of error types, out of total errors, the median percentage of errors obtained: phonological -- 29%; grammatical -- 56%; lexical -- 11%,; content -- 6%, and discourse -- 8%, and the median percentage of errors treated: phonological -- 54%; grammatical -- 49%; lexical -- 93%; content -- 90%, and discourse errors -- 34%.

The data reported from this research demonstrates the general rate of error occurrence in language classrooms and the teachers' tendencies to treat less frequent types of errors, which is possibly discrepant with Hendrickson's third criterion, though the criterion might have been related to the most frequent type of errors within a given category.

How should learner errors be treated?

This major issue presents the crux of the error treatment problem,

and involves decision making concerning what treatment to provide, i.e. forms and functions of the teachers' corrective feedback.

Research into language classroom has considered in great detail the issue of how to treat errors. The empirical studies of first language teachers' reacting moves (Bellack, Kliebard, Hyman and Smith, 1966; Hughes, 1973; Sinclair and Coulthard, 1975; Zahorik, 1968), and studies of second language classrooms or tutoring (Allwright, 1975; Chaudron, 1977; Fanselow, 1977b; Kasper, 1985; Long, 1977; Stokes, 1975) specify options available to teachers following the commission of error.

Teachers employ a great variety of corrective techniques while providing error treatment, however they display considerable variation in this respect. Allwright (1975) points out that teachers may have an obligation to be inconsistent, in a certain sense, in their use of treatment behaviors, since within any one class, learners' needs and levels may differ greatly.

Long in his decision making process model (1977) distinguishes three options as to what treatment to provide:

-to inform the learner that an error has been made;

-to inform the learner of the location of the error;

-to inform the learner of the identity of the error (the last option subsuming the first and the second options).

Allwright (1975) provides the following functions or purposes -- "features" of feedback, conveying not only cognitive information as to the fact, location, and nature of the error, but performing motivational and reinforcement functions as well: fact of error indicated; blame indicated; location indicated; model provided; error type indicated; remedy indicated; improvement indicated; praise indicated; opportinity for new attempt given.

Chaudron (1977) has developed a model of oral corrective discourse reflecting complex decisions language teachers make regarding how to treat errors occurring in actual language classrooms.

Who should treat learner error?

The last issue involves decision making concerning who should treat errors in language classrooms: the teacher, the learner-committant of the error, or other learners.

It is usually the teacher who delivers corrective feedback in language classrooms, however objectives of actual language classroom necessitate a certain amount of learner self-correction (self-repair), following other-initiate. That is, the teacher informs the learner about the commission, location, or identity of the error made (Long, 1977).

Some research on English conversations claim that the notion of "repair" ("actual fixing of errors") is broader than that of error treatment. Schegloff, Jefferson and Sacks (1977) differentiate four observable conversational repair patterns in ongoing spoken discourse, which comprise initiation and repair involving -self and -other: -self-initiated other repair; -self-initiated self-repair; -other-initiated self-repair; -other-intiated other repair. Out of four patterns, a strong propensity for self-initiated self-repair was found among native speakers of English, i.e. interlocutors normally "sort out" -- notice and fix errors -- "communication difficulties or breakdowns" as they occur.

As learners themselves are mostly responsible for their target language improvement, self-repair might play an important role in guiding learners to the target language model, and the teacher's job is to help them achieve this difficult goal: to allow learners enough time and opporunity for self-repair (in spite of the fact whether it is self- or other-initiated) so as to enable them to make self-initiated self-repairs.

The concept of "wait-time" is very important in the process of self-repair (Fanselow, 1977b; Holley and King, 1974), because as Krashen (1985) claims the "monitor" (internalized "editor" or collection of rules one has learned) can repair errors under certain conditions, one of these conditions being the adequate time for the learner to process the output. Wait-time includes the length of time between the moment of error commission or the possible prompting, rephrasing or redirecting structuring/soliciting move to another student and actual manifestation of corrective behavior by the learner.

Some empirical studies report the relative amount of self-correction: Courchene (1980) and Fanselow (1977b) -- 4%. The findings of some studies (Holley and King, 1975) show increase of the quality and quantity of students' responses following teachers' wait-time questions.

Another option related to this issue is peer correction. Porter (1986) in an experimental study discovered that although second language learners treated each other's errors very infrequently, when they did, they were five times more likely to be right than to miscorrect. The native speakers other-corrected only eight per cent of the errors that occurred in the learner's speech. The difference between the native and non-native speaker's correction rates were not statistically significant. Peer feedback and other negotiation of meaning might be very helpful and encouraging in the process of language learning.

All options related to the issue of who should treat errors are available in actual language classroom. Any corrective feedback provided in the adequate manner might have a positive effect on language learning, aid learner's attention to the error problem.

The research on error treatment to date demonstrates the extremely complex nature of the problem, involving the complicated process of decision making on the part of the teacher.

Promising Ways to Study the Problem

Introduction

At present a variety of approaches are available to researchers to consider the crucial problems of such a complex field of enquiry as classroom language process. The choice of approach is mainly determined by the researcher's philosophy, the issue under investigation, research questions, limits of generalizability and descriptive validity. All methodologies have an important role in enhancing understanding of second language acquisition, provide various implications for research on the field.

Experimental Studies

Experimental models have come from experimental science and have been employed in language classroom research. Experimental studies are exemplified by an experiment designed to test a hypothesis by means of objective instrumentation and statistical analyses.

Experimental approach can be applied to investigate error treatment in language classroom-to test hypotheses about the efficacy of particular corrective feedback in language teaching. Quantitative studies of error

treatment in second language classroom include Chaudron (1986a), Courchene (1980), Fanselow (1977b), Hamayan and Tucker (1980), Lucas (1975), Nystrom (1983), Salica (1981).

Although experiment as methodology has tremendous advantages, it is inappropriate for studying human behavior in naturally occurring settings, in that it requires that the phenomenon under investigation must be removed from its real-world context, which results in simplification and unnatural manipulation of variables.

Action Research

A viable alternative to experimental studies is action research which can provide immediate rewards to teachers and learners. Action research is usually labelled as a participtory, self-reflective and collaborative approach to research. It involves direct implementation on the part of the researcher with only limited possibilities for control. Researchers take part in the activities under investigation, they do not set out to test any hypotheses, instead they aim at systematically observing what follows and its apparent results in a local context.

Action research can enable teachers-explorers to examine their own language classroom process, to take constructive steps for solving immediate problems, systematically reflecting on the results.

The limitation of action research is that it aims at achieving local understanding. However, it might provide viable solutions to classroom problems.

Naturalistic Enquiry

Naturalistic enquiry is generically identified as a qualitative, process-oriented approach to the description of language classroom process. It presupposes non-intervention of the reseacher into the setting and absence of control over naturally occurring events. Researchers employing this approach usually do not set out to influence the normally occurring patterns of instruction and interaction, they aim at describing and understanding these processes rather than testing hypotheses about cause-effect relationship. Thus, the general aim is to describe every aspect of the phenomenon under investigation, in as much detail and as openly as possible.

Naturalistic enquiry possesses the optimal combinations of attributes to address the research problem under consideration, it provides researchers with a detailed and comprehensive description of language classroom process:

-it can account for learners who do not participate actively in class;

-it can provide insights into the conscious thought processes of participants;

-it helps to identify variables which have not been previously acknowledged (Gaies, 1983).

However, the approach has a number of limitations as it depends to a great extent on the skills of the researcher, it is time-consuming and it is difficult to generalize the results obtained, to discriminate common and idiosyncratic features of the phenomenon under consideration (Long, 1980). There is also the "observer's paradox" (Labov, 1969, quoted in Allwright and Bailey, 1991) which may influence the subjects' behavior and result in invalid data.

Naturalistic enquiry employs a number of procedures: introspection, non-participant observation, participant observation, focused description. A variety of techniques can be used to obtain data: note-taking, interviewing, administering questionnaires and others. Naturalistic studies usually produce their results in a discursive and illustrative manner.

In order to obtain different perspectives on the phenomenon under investigation, naturalistic enquiry involves collection of introspective and retrospective accounts of language classroom events. The consensus among the researchers in this tradition is that there is no single "true" interpretation of a particular phenomenon, which necessitates the application of a triangulation strategy (Denzin, 1970) to the research. Naturalistic enquiry can comprise both objective research based on observation schedules designed to provide an accurate and reliable record of behaviors and subjective research that emphasizes the interpretative, value-laden nature of all description.

Conceptual Framework of Rationale for the Present Study

Error Treatment in Classroom-centered Research

The unifying factor between naturalistic enquiry and classroom-centered research (CCR) is that both place solid emphasis on building up a holistic picture of the classroom setting.

"Classroom-centred research is just what it says it is-research centred on the classroom. . . . classroom research simply tries to investigate what actually happens inside the classroom. At its most narrow, it is in fact research which treats classroom interaction as virtually the only object worthy of investigation." (Allwright and Bailey, 1991, p. 2).

Classroom teacher-learner interaction is viewed as conversation and instructional exchanges between teacher and students providing the best opportunities for the learners to exercise target language skills, to test out their hypotheses about the target language, and to get useful feedback (Chaudron, 1988).

CCR is a broader term for a wide range of research studies where the main emphasis is on the processes of teaching and learning as they occur in language classrooms.

The main goal of CCR is the understanding of how the social events of the language classroom are enacted. "Classroom process research is concerned with the careful description of the interpersonal events which take place in the classroom as a means of developing understanding about how instruction and learning take place" (Ellis, 1991, p. 64). Thus CCR-studies set out to describe classroom behavior in detail in order to build up an accurate record of what actually takes place. Careful, detailed description provides a basis for understanding and explaining what happens in teaching-learning. It enables researchers to obtain a clear and true picture about the way in which teachers and learners go about their business. It provides helpful insights and valuable speculations about the relationship between overt classroom behaviors and language learning. CCR puts the main emphasis on the detailed attention to specific aspects of classroom acivity.

The principal research method of CCR is detailed, ethnographic

observation of classroom behavior. Although CCR takes much from general educational research, and comprises situations where language is both the medium of instruction and interaction language classroom research resembles anthropological research in that it seeks to understand what actually occurs in an individual classroom which might be viewed as a separate cultural setting.

The issues CCR is concerned with are derived from views about language teaching and learning. One of the major issues of CCR is error treatment which considers how teachers deal with learner errors in classrooms. Detailed studies of aspects of the teacher's language-the treatment of learner error (Allwright, 1975), of teacher talk (Henzl, 1973) were carried out within the framework of CCR. Classroom-centered researchers " . . . achieved a strong and still growing awareness of the tremendous depth and richness of the language classroom as a site for the investigation of language teaching and learning" (Allwright and Bailey, 1991, p. 2).

Discourse Analytical Approach to Error Treatment In Language Classroom

Research carried out in SLA promoted the switch of attention to the study of second language classroom discourse, provided research issues and framework for analysis. Classroom discourse is a cooperative enterprise, a process of negotiation, in which the teacher and the learners collaborate in managing interactional tasks in the classroom.

Instructional discourse presupposes that the teacher and the learners act out institutional roles. The tasks and the classroom activity are aimed at transmission and reception of information controlled by the teacher. The main focus is on knowledge as a product and on accuracy. The classroom can afford "co-existing discourse worlds," dependent on whether the classroom interaction sets out trying to learn or trying to communicate. Learning and the pedagogic discourse it produces might be reconciled with communication and the natural discourse it produces through metacommunication about the target language and the problems of how to learn it. Discourse worlds of classroom and natural settings can be reconciled through communication about learning (Ellis, 1991, ch. 5).

Discourse analysis as a field of enquiry is one of the most recent

developments in classroom research on language teaching and learning. In classroom research discourse analysis involves the analysis of spoken language as it is used in classrooms among teachers and learners. Van Lier (1988, quoted in Allwright and Bailey, 1991) defines discourse analysis as an analysis of the processes of interaction.

Discourse analysis was promoted by the development of analytical procedures for the description of suprasentential structures in linguistics, as well as by ethnographic and sociolinguistic research on the structure of interaction.

The first language classroom research carried out within the framework of discourse analysis was a famous study of structure of classroom discourse by Bellack, Kliebard, Hyman and Smith (1966). The researchers proposed a classic exchange cycle of classroom discourse, consisting of a sequence of four moves, each with its own rules for form and context of use-structure, solicit, respond and react.

A more comprehensive analytical system of classroom discourse was developed by Sinclair and Coulthard (1975). They presented the classroom interaction discourse as a hierarchically structured system of "ranks." The analytical discourse level includes five ranks (lesson, transaction, exchange, move, act), each of which constitutes the elements of the rank above, according to rank-specific structural rules. Thus, the "move" is constructed through various structures, realized by "acts", each performing a specific discourse function.

Fanselow (1977a) modified and elaborated Bellack's analytical system to devise "FOCUS" (Foci for Observing Communications Used in Settings). This multidimensional system comprises dimensions for pedagogical function, content, speaker and others, introduces new dimensions-the "medium," and "use of medium," provides general categories for all the participants of interaction. The unit of analysis is the pedagogical discourse "move" with the categories of the pedagogical purpose dimension. The instrument can be employed for either live observation or analysis from a recording.

Discourse analysis considers the internal formal structure and functional purpose of the verbal classroom interaction, and employs both structural analytical units, such as utterances, turns, T-units,

communication units, fragments, as well as functional analytical units- repetitions, expansions, clarification requests, comprehension checks, confirmation checks, repairs, models.

Discourse analysis makes use of transcripts and audio- or video-taped interactions as database. Verbatim transcripts, reflecting and conveying all the nuances of natural human speech are valuable records of interaction development as a dynamic phenomenon.

Chaudron's Flow Chart Model of Oral Corrective Discourse

The most detailed model of classroom corrective discourse was proposed by Chaudron (1977). This flow chart structural model (see Appendix A) describes actual corrective interaction for a given error or set of errors. The model was based on the corrective portions of classroom interaction in French immersion classes. Chaudron's model was tested by Salica (1981) in an ESL setting.

Chaudron synthesized the descriptive system for classroom discourse devised by Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) and Allwright's (1975) suggestions for the basic options of corrective reactions available to teachers for error treatment. The flow chart model describes the recursive corrective treatment cycle of opening, answering and follow-up moves following commissioning of error.

A simple "correction" can involve at least three moves after the student's initial error.

(1) The teacher can react in an initial follow-up move, which provides some treatment that optionally accepts, evaluates, and/or comments on the error. Ignoring an error, or "exiting" may take place simultaneously with the treatment of a second error in the same student's utterance. Thus, the model possesses the third dimension of depth.

(2) Some opening move, or elicitation, will be necessary to require the committant of the error or transferred students, to respond again, whether or not any initial follow-up treatment has been delivered. Without a follow-up move, the opening move may provide information with regard the error in some explicit way, or even explicitly if the focus of the elicitation is on the error.

(3) The student(s) will then reply again.

The flow chart model presupposes that further errors would automatically re-enter the flow as a student's answering move, resultant in a new corrective treatment cycle. A series of moves would constitute a correcting exchange, the cyclic series of which would build a transaction.

Along with the flow chart, Chaudron offered a catalogue of over thirty types and features of teacher's corrective reactions regarding learners' errors (see Appendix B). Features are linguistic or discursive markers "bound" to the context (e.g. stress, some attention-getters, interruption etc.); types are deemed to be capable of standing independently, their relationship to the context will, however, determine their specific nature and information potential. Often some features help to discriminate between the common types (e.g. repeating the student's utterance with question intonation can not be considered as an approbative "reinforcing" follow-up). Some structures can be either types or features (e.g. negation). Collectively, the types and features of corrective reactions constitute the set of elemental "acts" of corrective discourse, and combine into a structural model describing actual corrective interaction.

Although a number of researchers have developed descriptive categories for corrective reactions (Allwright, 1975; Cathcart and Olsen, 1976), the categories that have been proposed are either "molar" or gross "molecular" descriptions of the teacher's reactions, which might result in overlooking "elemental" features and types of corrective discourse, not to mention overlooking the potential effects of special combinations of elements in the larger classroom interaction, besides, the flow chart model provides description of simultaneous correction of different errors, as well as combinations of types of reaction and recursive corrective interaction (Chaudron, 1977). Chaudron proposes a more elementary, low-inference set of structural types and features of corrective discourse which involve fewer assumptions about intentions, effects, or context.

The flow chart model enables teachers to take complex decisions regarding their corrective reacting behavior. This model of error treatment behavior is open to empirical testing by other researchers. It may provide valuable insights for teachers who set out to observe their own

and the learners' actual classroom behavior and to compare it with the model. Such comparisons can enable the researchers and teachers to discover certain patterns or systematicity across different teachers, learners, various classroom settings.

CHAPTER 3 METHODOLOGY

Introduction

Naturalistic enquiry is an appropriate approach to investigate oral corrective discourse in the Turkish EFL classroom. This mode of enquiry is generically defined as a qualitative, process-oriented approach to the description of language classroom process (Allwright and Bailey, 1991). It presupposes non-intervention into the normally occurring patterns of the language classroom, including teacher-student interaction, seeking to describe and understand this process. Naturalistic enquiry provides researchers with a detailed and comprehensive description of language classroom process.

Thus, the present study was classroom centered and derived its data from the process of classroom corrective interaction.

Context

This study was carried out at Bilkent University School of the English Language (BUSEL), Bilkent University, Ankara, Turkey. Bilkent University is an English-medium university, and BUSEL is the English language preparatory school. Students at BUSEL are required to become linguistically proficient, to obtain language skills which they will need to succeed in their university courses.

Students registering for Bilkent University take the Bilkent University Certificate of Proficiency in English (COPE), which is prepared and administered by the BUSEL Testing Unit under the auspices of the University of Cambridge Local Examination Syndicate (UCLES). COPE is a language proficiency test and is designed to define whether the students' proficiency level of English is sufficient to enroll directly for the Freshman program. Those students who fail to reach the required standard take a separate placement test to ascertain their placement level. Correspondingly, these students attend courses at BUSEL in two separate programs: Preparatory Program (Elementary Level), comprised of B (real beginners), E1 (false beginners), E2, E3, E4 courses, each designed to last half a semester; Pre-Sessional Program (Intermediate Level), comprised of L1, L2, L3, L4, L5 and L6 courses, each designed to last half a semester. During a year students move up, repeat, or jump levels on the basis of

their BUSEL progress test grades.

Research Design

The present study took a naturalistic enquiry approach, in that the researcher did not implement any intervention-treatment, nor did she exercise any control over the teacher, the students, or the lesson content.

This study was a descriptive case study of two teachers in two classes aimed at describing systematically and accurately one set of facts and characteristics about the Turkish EFL classroom, namely oral corrective discourse between teachers and students. The accumulated database was solely descriptive -- it did not seek to explain relationships, test hypotheses, or make predictions.

This study was concerned with qualitative methods -- the description of the Turkish EFL classroom, insofar as classroom behavior was classified, and limited inferences toward low-level generalizations were made. However, it also employed a quantitative method of enumerating and correlating events. Thus, the present study provided a quantitative-qualitative interpretative data.

Participants

The study examined a typical classroom at BUSEL. The criterion for selecting participants for the present study was that of typical case sampling. This typical case was selected with the cooperation of the key-informant -- BUSEL management -- who helped to identify what is typical for BUSEL. The participants included two Turkish EFL teachers and seventy-four Turkish EFL students, divided into four classes, two classes per teacher.

The teachers were selected on the basis of a qualitative profile, comprising variables, such as nationality, sex, age, length of teaching experience: a Turkish EFL male teacher, a Turkish EFL female teacher, both of more than five years of teaching experience.

Students selected as participants for the present research are studying English to gain entrance to Bilkent University. The qualitative profile developed for the study included such a variable as an intermediate level of language proficiency for the Turkish students. Intermediate-level students have acquired core vocabulary and grammar. They are given

opportunities to learn and practice language forms and their uses to develop both receptive and productive skills. At this level they are expected to develop effective and confident communication in English.

Procedures

The methodology of the present study involved instruments and procedures to adequately describe and analyse the Turkish EFL classroom corrective interaction.

The principal method of studying oral corrective discourse in the Turkish EFL classroom was focused observation and description. The specific focus was on the teachers' corrective feedback provided to the students in the EFL classroom.

Moreover, the present study incorporated teacher and student perspectives through interviewing and responses to questionnaires. The teachers' interviews and the students' self-report in the form of questionnaires gave emic interpretation of the Turkish EFL classroom corrective discourse, and provided triangulation of the researcher's etic interpretation of the classroom events. Thus, the present study employed comprehensive strategy of data and methodological triangulation -- different perspectives on the same phenomena -- (Denzin, 1970), which permitted the researcher to combine strengths and correct some of the deficiences of any single source of data.

Initiating Contact

The researcher met Busel management and obtained their permission to carry out research at BUSEL. She informed management that the purpose of the research would be to examine the Turkish EFL classroom and teacher-student classroom interaction. BUSEL management helped to find and to contact teachers and students who were willing to be observed and audiotaped, and in the case of teachers, those who were willing to talk about the lessons afterwards, who were potentially interested in the findings of the study, and in getting feedback from the researcher. Participant cooperation and engagement was an element in selection.

The researcher met both the teachers and the students from four EFL classes. In order to avoid triggering the observer's paradox, (Labov, 1969, quoted in Allwright and Bailey, 1991) the researcher did not tell the

participants that she would be analysing error treatment in those classes. However, she openly told them she would observe teacher-student classroom interaction for the purpose of research. Then the researcher distributed informed consent forms to the participants (see Appendix C). After they signed these forms, the researcher once again emphasized that the audiotapes, interviews, and questionnaires would not be used if the participants would prefer to keep them confidential.

Data Collection

Three sources of data were collected in the present study: data from classroom observation, teachers' interviews, and students' self-report in the form of a questionnaire.

Observation

By means of observation and audiotaping the researcher obtained data related to the corrective interaction in four EFL classes. Ten 1.5 hour lessons were tape-recorded while the researcher was observing the classes.

Figure 1

Observation Schedule for Teacher A and Teacher B

	week I	week II	week III	week IV
Teacher A, class 1		Monday	Monday	Wednesday
Teacher A, class 2				
Teacher B, class 1	Friday	Friday	Thursday	
Teacher B, class 2				

A seating plan of the participants was drawn, on which the students' names and their physical positions relative to the teacher and to one another were given (see Appendix D). Each student was given an identification number. The students were asked to keep to their seats during the observation time.

Since the focus was on the teacher treatment of student errors, a single microphone was used to pick up both the teachers' and the students' voices. It is believed that the presence of the researcher and the tape-

recorder did not make any major difference in the classroom interaction that occurred.

While recording, the researcher was also observing teacher-student corrective interaction as it progressed. She tried to code in real time and include into the tally list all the errors committed by students and their treatment by teachers. The tally (see Appendix E) presented a grid depicting types of errors on the horizontal axis and the types of corrective reactions on the vertical axis.

Transcriptions

All the error-response episodes (see next section) from the audiotapes were subsequently transcribed. Allwright's transcription conventions for classroom discourse served as guidelines in transcribing data for the present study (see Appendix F). Working with the data in the transcipt, the researcher traced the corrective interaction with Chaudron's Flow Chart Model (see Appendix A), following the route depicting the teacher's decision making-specific ways in which teachers treated their students' errors. The types of errors which occurred and the corresponding treatment that followed (type, choice, and amount of corrective feedback) were coded, analysed, and then included into the above-mentioned tally list. Transcriptions were more revealing about how language lessons proceeded and how error treatment occurred. The coding of transcribed data allowed the researcher to examine corrective teacher-student interaction in depth.

The most representative error-response episode transcriptions from both classes of either teacher were chosen and offered to the coders -- a group of MA TEFL students. They were to code all the occurrences of errors and the error treatment that followed on the basis of Chaudron's descriptions of corrective reactions (see Appendix B). The transcriptions were checked by the researcher and the coders for completeness and accuracy of speaker identification.

Transcriptions of the database were amenable to a variety of qualitative and quantitative analytical procedures.

Framework for Analysis

The present study was carried out within the framework of a discourse

analysis tradition (Chaudron, 1977) which involves both the internal formal structure and the functional purpose of the verbal classroom interaction. Chaudron's descriptive model of corrective treatment of learners' errors employs a unit of analysis, called the "move." This unit of discourse structure is based on the natural divisions in classroom discourse: the beginning of a new utterance is determined by change in the person speaking, as well as by changes in the function of what is said. Each error-response episode incorporates an opening move, an answering move, and usually a follow-up move, and any number of subsequent cycles of these moves. An excerpt from Teacher A's classroom observation transcription exemplifies a recursive cycle of moves:

T: Why is gold so expensive to produce, uh, hm? ... Why is gold so expensive to produce? (opening move)

F: It is difficult to found it. (answering move)

T: It is difficult to find it. (follow-up move)

M1: It is /skars/. (answering move)

T: It is scarce. Yes, aha. And in which parts of the world can you find gold? (follow-up/opening move)

LL: /ostr&lji&/, South Africa (answering move)

T: South Africa (follow-up move)

LL: Saudi Arabia (answering move)

MV: Manila (answering move)

T: Where else? (opening move)

FV: Great Britain (answering move)

T: Great Britain? (follow-up move)

FV: Great Britain was the first country to x gold standard. (answering move)

T: Yeah, gold standard. That was the first country to adopt the gold standard. Right. Have I heard New Zealand? (follow-up/opening move)

The present study employs the following symbols for interlocutor identification: T stands for teacher, M and F stand for unidentified male and female students correspondingly, M1 and F1 stand for identified male and female students correspondingly, MV and FV stand for a male or a female

voice from the audiotape, LL stands for a subgroup of class speaking in chorus.

In her first opening move the teacher sets the task. The students are to answer her question. One of the students responds to the teacher's structuring move by the answering move committing a grammatical error ("It is difficult to found it"). The teacher's follow-up move ("It is difficult to find it") presents **repetition with change** corrective reaction. Another student's answering move contains a phonological error. Teacher A takes her follow-up move, simultaneously providing the committant of the error with corrective feedback (again **repetition with change**- "It is scarce") and initiating another opening move. The students take a new answering move, and the cycle goes on.

Another excerpt from Teacher B's classroom observation transcription illustrates corrective discourse:

T: And how about, uh, I mean, we-what did we do in this world or what are we doing? (opening move)

FV: We destroy the world. (answering move)

T: You destroy the world. What do you mean by saying destroy the world. How can we destroy the world, do you think? (follow-up/opening move)

LL: Quite easy. (answering move)

T: How do you think it's quite easy, Uhr? (follow-up/opening move)

M: Because one president, if one president say that word for the other president, then, uh, x, uh, xxx (answering move)

LL: [laugh]

T: aha (follow-up move)

M: and xx (answering move)

LL: [laugh]

T: OK. Wonderful language and- (follow-up move)

M: It's difficult- (answering move)

T: And wars start, you say, hm? (follow-up/opening move)

M: Yes. (answering move)

T: OK, you are right, aha. Do you want to add anything else to what Uhr said? Uhr talked about wars. (follow-up/opening move)

An opening move in this error-response episode is accomplished by

Teacher B, who initiates the interchange by setting the task. A female student answers in a complete sentence. The teacher's follow-up move includes such dimensions as **repetition** of the student's answer, **prompting** of the student and restatement of his instructions. Another answering move is taken by a subgroup of students. The teacher initiates a new task in his follow-up move. A male student answers by committing grammatical errors ("Because one president, if one president say that word for the other president, then, uh.. "). The discourse proceedes as a subsequent cycle of new moves.

Errors were identified according to an objective evaluation of errors according to linguistic norms or evident misconstrual of facts and any additional linguistic behavior that the teacher reacted to negatively or with an indication that improvement of the response was expected (Chaudron, 1977). The researcher attempted to locate all oral errors, whether or not they were reacted to by the teacher, so that both the amount of corrective feedback and error type distribution could be identified.

Instances of errors were classified then according to type of error: phonological errors -- pronunciation errors; grammatical-morphological errors -- omission or incorrect use of articles, prepositions, auxiliary verbs, incorrect omission or addition of bound morphemes; grammatical-syntactic errors -- word order errors, lack of coherence; lexical errors -- word choice errors, confusion of items; semantic errors -- incomplete responses, or incorrect expression of ideas, inappropriate answers that do not supply the information expected in the teacher's question.

Repetition of the same error by a student after an attempted correction or its repetitious occurrence in the same utterance were counted as errors. Students' self-corrected errors were not considered in the analysis.

The data derived from the language classroom discourse context (errors, responses, and error-response sequences) were amenable to two categories of analysis. Frequency counts provided a picture of error distribution and the amount of error treatment in each teacher's classroom, more specifically, an insight into the teachers' decision making as to how to deliver corrective feedback by further classifying the corrective

reactions (see Appendix B). Secondly, the communication features in each class, the setting of tasks, taking of turns, and nature of the topic of each classroom were discussed as a backdrop for the quantified results.

Interviews

Both EFL teachers were not informed of the exact focus of the observation and recording of their classes. They were told that the researcher was interested in the process of the Turkish EFL classroom. During the observations and interviews, the teachers exhibited attributes that were considered in the analysis of classroom corrective interaction. After each session, the teachers were interviewed in order to identify their teaching philosophy, preferences and decisions for actual error treatment in their classes.

The type of interviews taken from both EFL teachers was an interview guide approach (see Appendix G). Topics and issues to be covered were specified in advance, in outline form. The interviewer defined the sequence and wording of questions in the course of the interview. The teachers were asked to listen to the audiotapes of their classes and to comment on the corrective interaction patterns that were recorded. The outline increased the comprehensiveness of data and made data collection somewhat systematic for each respondent. Interviews remained conversational and situational.

Questionnaire

The students' point of view -- their responses to and preferences for error treatment in EFL classes -- was an equally important issue. In order to elicit information on their opinions and preferences for corrective feedback provided by the EFL teachers, a questionnaire was designed by the researcher on the basis of Chaudron's descriptions of corrective reactions (see Appendix H). The draft of the questionnaire was discussed with a group of panelists -- MA TEFL students -- who suggested some modifications.

Pilot Testing

Preliminary testing of the questionnaire was conducted with four BUSEL volunteer students from different (E4, L2, L3, L4) proficiency levels. The researcher explained to the students that the questionnaire would be administered for the purpose of her research. She made sure that

the students understood the content of the questionnaire and did not contact while filling it out.

After this pilot test the actual participants -- students from all EFL classes were administered the same questionnaire. The procedure of administering the questionnaire took place when the observation was over and students had passed their mid-term exam. The number of participants decreased, and "mortality" from each class was six students from class A-1, three students from class A-2, three students from class B-1, and two students from class B-2. These students either passed ELT exam and left Bilkent until the new academic year, or failed their exams and returned to the lower level.

The participants were asked to complete the questionnaire individually in class. It was important to ensure that they were not allowed to consult with one another or take a questionnaire out of class in order to prevent biasing of opinions. The questionnaire was administered only after the participants seemed to have clearly understood the content.

A typical case investigated in the present study matched the developed profile across a larger number of the population.

CHAPTER 4 ANALYSIS OF DATA

Introduction

This chapter focuses on the analysis of the quantitative-qualitative interpretative data obtained by means of a comprehensive strategy of triangulation, namely through observation of Turkish EFL classrooms, teachers' interviewing, and students' questionnaires. The main purpose of the study was to describe how error treatment was provided in Turkish EFL classrooms. More precisely, the research questions asked were:

-How is corrective feedback provided by Turkish teachers in an EFL setting?

-What are the EFL teachers' decisions and preferences for providing corrective feedback?

-What are the Turkish EFL students' preferences for the teachers' corrective feedback?

-What is the relationship between the Turkish students' preferences and the EFL teachers' decisions for providing corrective feedback?

The analysis was based on the oral correction of oral errors committed by students in Turkish EFL classrooms.

The conception of "error treatment" employed in the present study was that a corrective reaction is any reaction by the teacher which transforms, disapprovingly refers to, or demands improvement of a student's utterance (Chaudron, 1977). This conception provides the broadest range of possibilities for teacher treatment of errors committed by students.

The research questions served as a guide in the process of data analysis.

How Is Corrective Feedback Provided by Turkish Teachers in an EFL Setting?

Teacher A

This EFL teacher taught two regular classes every day for an hour and a half per class. She had 17 students in Class 1 and 19 students in Class 2. The main focus in this teacher's classes seemed to be on the importance of consistent classroom procedures. Classroom activities and tasks observed and recorded included work with the textbook, listening to some passage, more specifically, such tasks as comprehension questions,

multiple-choice questions, true-false questions, vocabulary study comprising word-building exercises, word-formation exercises, reference words. Thus, Teacher A used a variety of activities and some devices (record player) to assist her in instruction.

Table 1

Error Type Distribution for Teacher A's classes*

Errors	Total N	Ave N/class	Ave % of Total
Gr.-Morph.	48	9.6	6.76
Lexical	43	8.6	6.05
Phonological	43	8.6	6.05
Semantic	8	1.6	1.12
Gr.-Synt.	-	-	-
Total	142	28.4	

*5 classes of Teacher A were observed

Error type distribution for Teacher A' classes (see Table 1) shows that the errors that appeared most in her classes were morphological -- (6.76 average % of total), lexical -- (6.05%), and phonological -- (6.05%) errors. The absence of syntactical errors might be explained by the fact that students produced mostly short and simple sentences. Although the students in her classes were engaged in activities in which the focus of instruction was mainly on form, they enthusiastically participated in conversations with the teacher.

Teacher A employed a variety of corrective strategies in treating students' errors (see Table 2). Most of the errors were committed by students within the context of typical classroom corrective discourse with the teacher soliciting students' responses. This exemplifies the usual classroom dynamics, where the teacher controls the topic and the turn-taking.

A total of the corrective reactions to errors for Teacher A comprised 99 responses for five classes, an average number of 20 per class. Errors committed by students were predominantly responded to by **acceptance** (2.82

Table 2

Corrective Feedback Profile for Teacher A

Corrective Reactions	Total N	Ave N/class	Ave % of Total
Acceptance	14	2.8	2.82
Expansion	12	2.4	2.42
Ignore	10	2	2.02
Negation	8	1.6	1.61
Reduction	7	1.4	1.41
Repetition with change	7	1.4	1.41
Provide	6	1.2	1.21
Delay	5	1	1.01
Explanation	5	1	1.01
Complex explanation	5	1	1.01
Loop	5	1	1.01
Questions	4	0.8	0.80
Transfer	3	0.6	0.60
Repetition with change and emphasis	2	0.4	0.40
Prompt	2	0.4	0.40
Attention	1	0.2	0.20
Repeat	1	0.2	0.20
Clue	1	0.2	0.20
Accept*	1	0.2	0.20
Total	99	19.8	

average % out of total amount of corrective feedback) of those errors, by **expansion** (2.42%), and by **ignore** (2.02%) corrective reactions. Thus, the most frequent strategy for correcting students' errors for Teacher A was **acceptance** of those errors. This suggests that Teacher A did not immediately intervene when students made errors of grammatical form, or lexical or phonological errors. In cases of error treatment she used follow-up moves, including **expansion** of the students' utterances (by adding

more linguistic material to the student's utterance), by **repeating** the students' utterances with change of error, **negation** (by rejecting part or all of the student's erroneous response), or by **providing** the correct answer when the committant of the error was not able to give it.

Teacher B

The regular classroom teacher in charge of two classes composed of 23 and 14 students correspondingly, presents a different case with regard to the type of activities he employed. He did not confine himself to the material in the textbook. This teacher included as many opportunities as possible for oral language interaction. The classroom activities included mainly listening to the song, discussion of it afterwards, and brain-storming on some particular topic, such as "Civilization brings happiness", or "Is TV harmful to children." The students were encouraged to freely discuss, and they produced many spontaneous responses during these activities. The major part of the classroom interaction in these classes involved student-student interaction as well, with the teacher trying to intervene in some cases.

The distribution of error type for Teacher B (see Table 3) indicates

Table 3

Error Type Distribution for Teacher B's classes*

Errors	Total N	Ave N/class	Ave % of Total
Gr.-Morph.	339	67.8	10.05
Semantic	111	22.2	3.29
Lexical	109	21.8	3.23
Phonological	95	19	2.93
Gr.-Synt.	20	4	0.59
Total	674	134.8	

* 5 classes of Teacher B were observed

that morphological, lexical and semantic errors predominated in these classes. The marked total number of errors committed in these classes, the average number per class being 134.8, resulted from Teacher B's tendency to

Table 4

Corrective Feedback Profile for Teacher B

Corrective Reactions	Total N	Ave N/class	Ave % of Total
Acceptance	112	22.4	6.23
Ignore	65	13	3.62
Reduction	48	9.6	2.67
Loop	43	8.6	2.39
Repetition with change	20	4	1.11
Provide	19	3.8	1.05
Prompt	19	3.8	1.05
Delay	9	1.8	0.50
Questions	8	1.6	0.44
Expansion	7	1.4	0.38
Repeat	4	0.8	0.22
Interrupt	1	0.2	0.05
Attention	1	0.2	0.05
Negation	1	0.2	0.05
Repetition with no change	1	0.2	0.05
Transfer	1	0.2	0.05
Total	359	71.8	

elicit students' responses. Frequently, the marked number of morphological (10.05 average % of total), semantic (3.29%), and lexical (3.23%) errors for his classes is mainly explicable by the students' fluent language production.

Teacher B used various corrective strategies in responding to students' errors (see Table 4). However, most erroneous utterances were often **accepted** (6.23 average % of total) by Teacher B for their content, or left uncorrected -- **ignored** (3.62%). Error treatment in other cases was mainly provided by means of direct correct intervention, namely by **reduction** (employing only a segment of students' utterances), by **loop** (getting students to replay her or his utterance, due to lack of clarity or

certainty of its form), **repetition with change**, **provide**, and **prompt**. Thus, Teacher B's corrective feedback profile includes mainly **acceptance** and **ignore** corrective reactions.

Summary

The corrective feedback profiles of Teacher A and Teacher B correspond closely, including mainly **acceptance** and **ignore** corrective reactions. Although both teachers employ various corrective strategies in responding to learners' errors, they seem to be consistent in their non-intervention error treatment.

What Are the EFL Teachers' Decisions and Preferences for Providing Corrective Feedback?

The second research question concerns the teachers' general awareness of error treatment provided in their classes, in particular, their decisions and preferences for providing corrective feedback.

The teachers were interviewed following each classroom observation. They were asked to comment on the students' errors while listening to the recordings of their respective lessons. The teachers did not comment on all instances of errors that were later apparent on the transcription. Moreover, a close listening to the tapes during transcription revealed errors that would not be evident in a single classroom observation. For example, owing to the quantity of such errors, only the most representative errors were selected and discussed during the interviews.

The first interview aimed at finding out teachers' preferences for error treatment and their opinions as to whether, when, what errors should be corrected, and who should correct them.

Teacher A

This teacher maintained that errors should be corrected in the language classroom. However, she admitted, that she did not usually correct frequently at the intermediate level. She considered fluent language production to be a more important goal. During oral activities she preferred not to treat errors, if they were not "deadly" ones (in her words). Yet this teacher believed semantic errors should receive treatment. As to the "when" issue of error treatment, she held that the time for corrective feedback depended on the proficiency level of the

student who committed the error. Teacher A stated that she preferred never to interfere until students completed their answer, not to interrupt them. She spoke in favor of both teacher and peer correction.

Thus, she reported her primary concern for intermediate-level students was to develop fluent speech. Correspondingly, the students in her classes freely engaged in conversations, as can be illustrated by this excerpt from Class 2:

T: Does anybody know where the Inkas lived?

MV: Near Peru.

T: Near Peru. True. Actually in Peru [laughs].
All right, so. What has gold got to do with the Inkas? You know about them as well?

MV: /How many times?/

F: [laughs]

M4: They x gold.

T: Yeah.

M4: They found gold in these years, uh, they are modern countries peoples.

T: uh

LL: [laugh]

T: uh, what do you mean? Do you mean they used gold?

M4: Yeah, because, uh, uh, they have much gold. They discover gold in mines and they use gold in, uh, everywhere.

LL: [laugh]

T: Actually, they were the first nation, OK? They were the first people in the world, uh, who managed to give an operation to a man, a brain operation was made-

M4: Uh, yes.

T: and the knife they used was made of gold, right? They used gold as a solution in every x

M4: They have an advanced technology.

T: [laughs] Yeah, for their time, you are right.

M4: Yes, for-

T: Yeah, you are right, very advanced, very advanced, you are right.

The students' erroneous responses, and the teachers' moves presenting error treatment that followed are underlined. The present study employs transcription conventions for classroom discourse (see Appendix F).

This excerpt shows Teacher A's decisions as to how to treat errors, i.e. those committed by the male student ("They found gold in these years, uh, they are modern countries peoples"). The teacher's follow-up moves reveal her **acceptance** and **ignore** of the student's errors ("uh", "uh, what do you mean? Do you mean they used gold?"), her concern for communication and fluency (f.i., "Yeah, for their time, you are right", "Yeah, you are right, very advanced, very advanced, you are right"), for language production on the part of her students.

An important feature of her error treatment and interaction style in general is a soft, engaging, concerned manner. The following excerpt from Class 1 exemplifies it:

T: You've changed your mind. What does contemporary mean?
FV: modern
T: uh, this is one meaning.
LL: [discuss in Turkish]
T: in English
[FV: at the same time
[MV: at the same time
T: People who live, uh, at the same time. OK, which means, uh
LL: xx
F4: <u>They don't know each other</u>.
T: <u>It does not matter. Does it make any difference? If you look at the very first sentence, Shaka started his carrier at the same time as Napoleon came x and entered Waterloo. All right? Is it OK? Neither of men had ever heard of the other, you are right, Berna. But does it make any difference? They lived, uh, at the, uh, same time</u>.

Teacher A makes clear the lexical item "contemporary", and provides the students with an explanation of its content. Although she employs **negation** -- rejects the female student's utterance ("It does not matter. Does it make any difference?"), her manner is warm and does not discourage

the student from further language production ("All right? Is it OK? Neither of men had ever heard of the other, you are right, Berna.").

Teacher B

This teacher considered error treatment to be an essential part of language teaching and learning. However, he stated that he preferred to provide corrective feedback in an indirect, smooth way. He held that "communication, being communicative" (in his words) for his students was more important. He maintained that treatment of linguistic errors and interruption for such correction might intimidate or frustrate students in their attempts to talk again or to express themselves. Only when "urgent" (in his words) errors might hinder the meaning and lead to communication breakdown, did Teacher B note the need for intervention. He reported that in order to get students to produce complex utterances he employed more of the **acceptance** and **ignore** corrective reactions The following excerpt from Class 2 exemplifies it:

T: Well, who would like to start? Ozcan, do you agree with this idea-civilization brings happiness?

M5: Yes, probably.

T: OK, let's listen to each other.

M5: Because when people, uh, and, uh, state extending, it' good for us, it will be easier, but sometimes it can, uh, uh, brings, bring, uh, sadness because-

T: uh?

M5: When the technology is develop, people developing. All the guns is the developing. So there's too much possibility they can fight with each other.

T: OK. So your friend said as far as I can remember civilization can bring-

LL: happines

T: happiness. Only that?

LL: no

T: besides that it can-

LL: sadness, unhappiness

T: bring unhappiness, sadness. OK.

A male student attempts a complex response ("Because when people, uh, and, uh, state extending, it's good for us, it will be easier, but sometimes it can, uh, uh, brings, bring, uh, sadness because-") committing a grammatical error. Teacher B **accepts** his error thus supporting his effort (f.i., "OK. So your friend says as far as I can remember civilization can bring-").

Teacher B commented next, that most of the errors he perceived in his classes stemmed from lack of fluency. An excerpt from Class 1 exemplifies Teacher B's **acceptance** of errors as an opportunity to expand the students' oral production fluency:

M7: They want to say to us it's our, it's, it should be our way. It should be our way. This is a rules for a good world.

T: OK Who is going to show?

M7: Because the little child...children can't be..can't decide about the better day.

T: They can't decide about it.

M7: They can't decide...they can't decide. We should show they, them.

T: OK, but they, yes, Selen?

F5: I think, White Lion think little child is last chance for build a new, a good world.

T: OK, good, aha.

F5: And, uh, they want, uh, it's little child who will build a new, a good world.

T: OK, good, aha.

F5: For all the young-

T: Yes, little children, they are what?

LL: future

T: Future. You say the only hope for future. OK. They can rebuild this world. Yes.

By accepting or ignoring his students' errors, Teacher B revealed his concern for communication of messages instead of concern for "correct" language, as in the next excerpt from Class 2:

M11: Yesterday, uh, I thought, uh, with my friend about the subject, uh, we are talking about this subject-

T: uh?

M11: and we realised some real-, realities.

T: uh?

M11: Now I want to explain, uh, one of these. For example, the problems we, uh, now we are living all in the problems. But these problems, we did these problems. We make, made these problems. For example, nature and the people, the, the all human beings-

T: uh?

M11: live together in this earth-

T: Yes.

M11: and, uh, there are a little bit opposite things, because we can't live without nature, because we need them.

T: OK.

M11: For example-

T: We can't live without nature, because we need?

M11: them

T: We need?

M11: it.

T: We need it, yes, we need nature.

Erroneous responses were often treated by letting the student know the response was incorrect (f.i.,"We can't live without nature, because we need?" "We need?"), and allowing them to self-correct. Thus, Teacher B created a comfortable environment for the communication of ideas and opinions.

Summary

Comments by Teacher A and Teacher B show that their concern for oral production, for the progress of communication during a lesson overrode their concern for strictly linguistic errors. Mainly errors which might cause communication breakdown were considered important and were treated. Non-grammatical language was tolerated, as long as comprehension and communication were retained. They tended to neglect, i.e. **accept** or **ignore**, most errors. As we saw earlier, in rating types of errors, both teachers considered semantic errors to be more important than other types of errors. However, both teachers commented on the varying degree of

importance of some types of linguistic errors over others, depending on the level of their students' knowledge, the amount of time already spent on exercises on particular items, and recurrent individual problems with specific errors. The teachers suggested that they preferred to treat those items which were focal points of their lessons.

These reflections, both teachers' expressed preferences are borne out in the transcription-analysis and in their actual error treatment. The present results show a reasonable degree of parity between the teachers' expressed preferences and decisions about the actual error treatment in their classrooms.

What Are the Turkish EFL Students' Preferences for the Teachers' Corrective Feedback?

In order to answer the third research question data was obtained from Turkish EFL students in both Teacher A and Teacher B's classes by means of a questionnaire. These data are reported according to each teacher's classes and a comparison of the classes is given.

Teacher A's classes

An analysis of the data suggests that Turkish students prefer to be corrected more often than their teacher assumes they should be. Responses show a general agreement by students (92.30% of all classes) as to whether they like their teacher to treat their errors.

Students also indicated their preferences in terms of how much treatment each error type should receive. The majority of the students (57.69%) ranked grammatical errors as the first error type. More than thirty-eight percent (38.46%) of students ranked lexical errors, 11.53% of students ranked phonological, and 11.53% of students ranked semantic errors as first in order of preference for error treatment.

Data also revealed the students' preferences regarding the particular type of corrective feedback provided by their teacher. The most popular corrective reactions included **repetition with change** (73.07% of students indicated "a lot" preference), **repetition with change and emphasis** (65.38%), **explanation and complex explanation** (65.38%), and **provide** (61.53%).

Other corrective reactions, namely, **ignore** (73.07% of students),

acceptance (73.07%), **expansion** (69.23%), **repeat** (69.23%), and **altered questions** (61.53%) were identified by students as "some" preferred.

Receiving the least attention in the order of preference in these classes were corrective reactions of **clue** (80.76% of students), **exit** (69.23%), and **repetition with no change** (65.38%) (see Table 5).

Table 5

Most Preferred Corrective Feedback in Teacher A's Classes

Corrective Reactions	% of students
Repetition with change	73.07
Repetition with change and emphasis	65.38
Explanation and complex explanation	65.38
Provide	61.53

Teacher B's classes

Data analysis for these classes showed in general that students are favorably disposed to teacher error treatment (90.62% of all classes). Interestingly, students from these classes showed a similar pattern of error preferences to Teacher A's classes reported above. The majority of students indicated the same types of errors as deserving high attention, the order of preference being as follows: lexical errors (40.62% of students), grammatical errors (34.37%), semantic errors (9.37%), and phonological errors (2.18%).

Most students highly preferred the following corrective reactions: **explanation and complex explanation** (81.25% of students), **provide** (71.87%), **repetition with change** (65.62%) and **delay** (65.62%).

Students expressed low preference for such corrective reactions as **interrupt** (68.75% of students), **emphasis** (62.52%), **repeat** (62.50%), **repetition with change and emphasis** (56.25%), **prompt** (56.25%), **original questions** (56.25%), and **verification** (56.25%).

Table 6

Most Preferred Corrective Feedback in Teacher B' classes

Corrective Reactions	% of students
Explanation and complex explanation	81.25
Provide	71.87
Repetition with change	65.62
Delay	65.62

No preference was indicated for **exit** (78.12% of students), **negation** (65.62%), and **ignore** (53.12%).

Summary

We have seen that the opinions and preferences of the students from classes of both teachers for error treatment are generally similar. The analysis also revealed no considerable differences in the students' preferences between Teacher A's and Teacher B's classes. The majority of students from both teachers' classes (92.3% and 90.62% respectively) indicated their strong preference for error correction. The fact that the students did not differ much in their opinions about how much emphasis should be given to each error type might be related to the requirements on the students at the intermediate level of language proficiency. In addition, students from all classes seemed to agree on their preferences about how corrective feedback should be provided. The minor differences exhibited in students' responses might reflect either the demand for the language on different students, or the focus of teaching activities in different classes.

What Is the Relationship Between the Turkish Students' Preferences and the EFL Teachers' Decisions for Providing Corrective Feedback?

The fourth research question concerns whether the EFL teachers' actual error treatment matches the Turkish students' preferences for corrective feedback. An answer to this question requires a consideration

of all the data collected in the present study.

Both EFL teachers exhibited a particular corrective feedback profile in their classrooms. They frequently used **acceptance** and **ignore** corrective reactions, which reflects their non-intervention policies when their students committed an oral language error.

First, although their actual corrective feedback in the classroom revealed their concern for oral production, the goal of communication overrode their concern for strictly linguistic errors, whereas the Turkish students preferred to be corrected more often than their teachers assumed.

Second, both teachers considered semantic errors which might lead to communication breakdown to be more important than other types in rating types of errors. However, Turkish EFL students indicated that semantic errors should receive the least attention for correction.

The order of preference for types of errors, indicated by the students, reflected the error type distribution observed in the Turkish EFL classrooms. These types of errors predominated and were treated by Teacher A and Teacher B in their classes.

Finally, both teachers employed those corrective strategies identified as mostly preferred by their students.

Thus, Turkish students wanted to be corrected more than their teachers did correct them and thought they should do. Both EFL teachers considered semantic errors most important to treat while their students preferred all other types of errors more. However, the students shared their teachers' preferences for the corrective strategies employed in their classes.

CHAPTER 5 CONCLUSIONS

Summary

Error treatment is a crucial aspect of the language teaching and learning process, a highly variable aspect of language classroom student-teacher interaction.

Extensive research on error treatment provides no coherent rationale for adopting a particular methodology in correcting learners' errors, but offers diverse opinions of the significance of errors and corrective strategies.

The modern trend in language classrooms today -- communicative teaching methodology -- places main emphasis on fluent oral production, and teaching efforts focus on how to get the learner to communicate in the target language. However, despite the change of attitudes toward errors, and the fact that errors are no longer viewed negatively, there is still some orientation toward error treatment as the main source of feedback to students. Most teachers regard errors as a necessary part of learning, and believe that even incidental error correction is inevitable in language classrooms, and only a few are actually willing and ready to accept and ignore learners' errors totally.

The findings of the present study suggest that in Turkish EFL classrooms the target language was the medium rather than the subject of instruction. Both EFL teachers did not regard language learning as mastery of form, which was exemplified by their little attention to correct language use. On the contrary, they attended less to ungrammatical errors than to unsuccessful conveying of the message; they cared more about communication of meaning. The Turkish EFL students in these classrooms engaged in interaction with their teachers. Both teachers were flexible enough in allowing students to initiate exchanges, to encourage classroom discourse.

The findings of this study show that the EFL teachers seem to be similar in their corrective feedback profile. They used consistent non-intervention strategies -- **acceptance** and **ignore** -- of the errors committed by their students. However, in cases of errors which might lead to communication breakdown they allowed for some other kind of corrective

treatment. The corrective feedback profile of both teachers seems to be inextricably connected to their stated preferences for error treatment.

Certain differences were observed between the EFL teachers' actual error treatment and their students' preferences regarding error correction. The Turkish students reported that they preferred more explicit correction of their oral errors, and they indicated that grammatical and lexical errors should receive a significant amount of attention. However, they showed preferences for other corrective strategies employed by their teachers in these classes. Thus, there is a small degree of parity between the EFL teachers' actual error treatment and the Turkish students' preferences for corrective feedback.

However, both EFL teachers exhibited actual language practice which seemed to encourage a comfortable classroom environment for experimenting with language. Their classes can be considered conducive to the students' testing of their linguistic hypotheses.

Pedagogical Implications

Error treatment research has investigated and identified a wide repertoire of teachers' corrective strategies in handling learners' errors. The repertoire of corrective responses to errors varies in amount, choice, and type for individual teachers.

However, being confronted with learners' errors, language teachers often exhibit inconsistency, lack of clarity, and even ambiguity while providing corrective feedback. They seem to have little access to alternatives for error treatment, or are unable to sort through them. This implies that teachers should gain awareness of feedback options available to them in language classrooms. This might aid them to employ the most appropriate corrective strategies in particular interactive situations.

If error treatment as the main source of feedback is an inevitable fact of language development, and if error treatment is to be effective in promoting learners' advance to the target language, we may still question the efficacy of direct intervention as a unilateral corrective strategy. Given that any corrective treatment is an intervention in the language learning process, teachers should make decisions as to how best to carry out this intervention for the benefit of their learners.

Attention to meaning, rather than form, as well as willingness to allow students to structure linguistic interaction may be effective in successful language learning. If error treatment is potentially effective in generating learners' correct target language performance, teachers must be ready to modify their error treatment practice. However, when the communicative use of the target language takes precedence over correct linguistic use, we might ask in what ways the teachers' error treatment guides the learners' sensitivity to the target language accuracy.

Language classroom research suggests that teacher should encourage linguistic hypothesis-testing among their learners, allowing them to take risks in their approximations of the target language. Learners should have access to a language environment which provides them with opportunities for meaningful language interaction. This implies that teachers, in treating learners' errors, should enlist strategies of providing them with the target language input and production, and should create a classroom environment conducive to experimentation with language.

Although research on error treatment to date has enhanced our understanding of the nature of the decision making process, and provides models of teacher's options in correcting learners' errors, it should be taken into account that each interactive situation is complex, dynamic and unique. Thus, it is very important to consider communicative features of each interactional situation, the nature of the classroom task, the language proficiency level of each student, and other features of the decision making process a particular teacher goes through in providing error treatment.

Another important issue is learners' perceptions of what they are learning, which might influence their attitudes and progress in language learning. It implies that serious consideration should be given to learners' needs, their opinion and preferences for teachers' actual classroom practices, more specifically, for error treatment. If error treatment is to be effective, classroom practice cannot afford to be based solely on any standardized practice, but it must be flexible enough to incorporate the learners' needs and preferences for error treatment. If teaching practices are to respond to the trends of communicative

methodology, they should necessarily address the specific needs of their learners. An issue arising here is that teachers who accept or ignore their students' errors might not meet their needs. However, they should not sacrifice communication for the sake of accuracy, as it might negatively affect the target language development of their students.

There is still a need to determine which language classroom behaviors on the part of the teachers, more specifically, which corrective strategies can promote learners' target language performance, and which behaviors tend to confuse or inhibit the development process.

The effects of error treatment on learning still need to be examined, as there remain unresolved a large number of issues. Much needs to be learned from examining the actual error treatment of practicing teachers. Further research is to be conducted to determine how error treatment aids learners' target language development and competence in classrooms. The effects of successful corrective treatment, involving both linguistic and affective aspects are still to be studied. This area of classroom-centered research deserves further investigation and experimentation. The issues raised in this chapter might serve as starting points for exploration, and enhance our understanding of the language classroom corrective interaction.

Future Research

Numerous issues about error treatment could not possibly be given straightforward answers due to the extremely complex nature of language classroom interaction.

Exploratory teaching is one of the most promising ways of working toward effective teaching, both for the individual and for the profession. Explorations in the area of error treatment should not necessarily be left to the classroom researchers. This area lends itself particularly well to action research by practicing teachers in their language classrooms. The language classroom can play a significant role in teacher development. Data coming directly from actual practice, language classroom experience are relevant in providing teachers with a renewed sense of purpose and direction in error treatment.

Teachers might gain much from viewing their actual classroom corrective practices as an excellent opportunity for conducting their own

investigation. They can become more efficient in helping their learners in making good target language progress.

Given the possibilities of exploring the implications of error treatment research findings and procedures for actual practice, teachers may come up with helpful insights from which everyone in our profession could benefit.

The researcher remains aware of the limitations of case studies for providing implications. Longitudinal studies of Turkish EFL classrooms might be carried out to provide a true picture of oral corrective discourse in an EFL setting.

We might examine the same teachers teaching at different times, to see if different lessons or different classes bring out different error treatment.

We could also look at classes through different "lenses" (Fanselow, 1977) than the ones employed in the present study and apply different categories and models of errors and error treatment.

However, the researcher believes that the triangulation strategy, combining the perspectives of the "insiders" (teachers and students) and the outside observer has justified itself and can be used further in investigating Turkish EFL classrooms.

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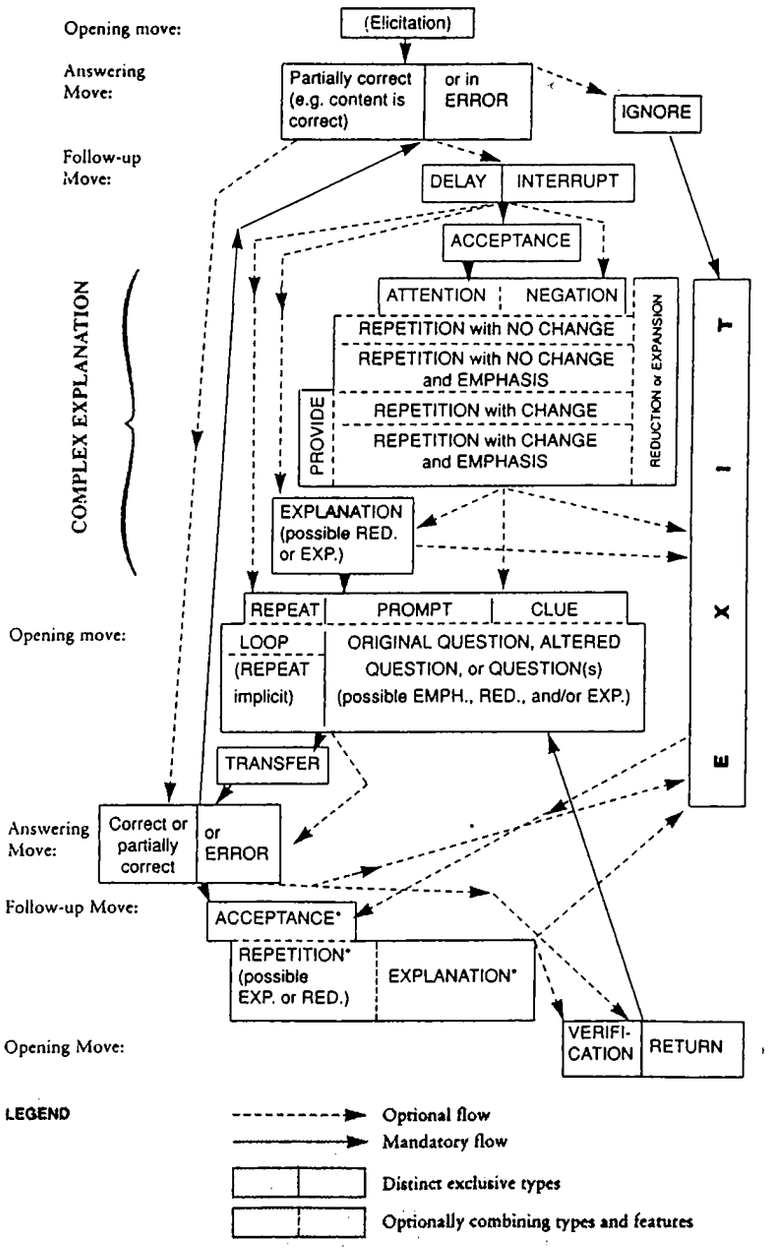
APPENDICES

Appendix A

Chaudron's Flow Chart Model of Corrective Discourse



Appendix B

Features and Types of Corrective Reactions in the Model of Discourse

Feature or Type of "Act" (F and/or T)	Description	Example of Exponent of Expression
IGNORE (F)	Teacher (T) ignores Student's (S) ERROR, goes on to other topic, or shows ACCEPTANCE* of content.	
INTERRUPT (F)	T interrupts S utterance (ut) following ERROR, or before S has completed.	
DELAY (F)	T waits for S to complete ut. before correcting. (Usually not coded, for INTERRUPT is "marked")	
ACCEPTANCE (T)	Simple approving or accepting word (usually as sign of reception of ut.), but T may immediately correct a linguistic ERROR.	Bon, oui, bien, d'accord
ATTENTION (T-F)	Attention-getter; probably quickly learned by Ss.	Euhh, regarde, attention, allez, mais.
NEGATION (T-F)	T shows rejection of part or all of S ut.	Non, ne . . . pas.
PROVIDE (T)	T provides the correct answer when S has been unable or when no response is offered.	S: Cinquante, uh . . . T: Pour cent.
REDUCTION (F) (RED.)	T ut. employs only a segment of S ut.	S: Vee, eee . . . (spelling) T: Vé . .
EXPANSION (F) (EXP.)	T adds more linguistic material to S ut., possibly making more complete.	S: Et c'est bien. T: Ils ont pensé que c'était bien?
EMPHASIS (F) (EMPH.)	T uses stress, iterative repetition, or question intonation, to mark area or fact of incorrectness.	S: Mille. T: Mille?
REPETITION with NO CHANGE (T) (optional EXP. & RED.)	T repeats S ut. with no change of ERROR, or omission of ERROR.	T: (les auto-routes) n'a pas de feux de circulation.
REPETITION with NO CHANGE and EMPH. (T) (F) (optional EXP. & RED.)	T repeats S ut. with no change of ERROR, but EMPH. locates or indicates fact of ERROR.	S: Mille. T: Mille?
REPETITION with CHANGE (T) (optional EXP. & RED.)	Usually T simply adds correction and continues to other topics. Normally only when EMPH. is added will correcting CHANGE become clear, or will T attempt to make it clear.	S: Le maison est jaune. T: La maison est jaune.
REPETITION with CHANGE and EMPHASIS (T) (F) (optional EXP. & RED.)	T adds EMPH. to stress location of ERROR and its correct formulation.	S: Doo tout . . T: Du tout. (stress)
EXPLANATION (T) (optional EXP. & RED.)	T provides information as to cause or type of ERROR.	
COMPLEX EXPLANATION (T)	Combination of NEGATION, REPETITIONs, and/or EXPLANATION.	S: Uh, E. (spelling 'grand T: D. Non, il n'y a pas de E.
REPEAT (T)	T requests S to repeat ut., with intent to have S self-correct.	
REPEAT (implicit)	Procedures are understood that by pointing or otherwise signalling, T can have S repeat.	
LOOP (T)	T honestly needs a replay of S ut., due to lack of clarity or certainty of its form.	
PROMPT (T)	T uses a lead-in cue to get S to repeat ut., possibly at point of ERROR; possible slight rising intonation.	S: Petit. Grande. T: Petit . . .
CLUE (T)	T reaction provides S with isolation of type of ERROR or of the nature of its immediate correction, without providing correction.	S: Les stations-services sont rares. T: *Sont* rares? Au présent?
ORIGINAL QUESTION (T)	T repeats the original question that led to response.	
ALTERED QUESTION (T)	T alters original question syntactically, but not semantically.	
QUESTIONs (T) (optional RED., EXP., EMPH.)	Numerous ways of asking for new response, often with CLUEs, etc.	
TRANSFER (T)	T asks another S or several, or class to provide correction.	
ACCEPTANCE* (T)	T shows approval of S ut.	
REPETITIONs* (T)	Where T attempts reinforcement of correct response.	
EXPLANATION* (T)	T explains why response is correct.	
RETURN (T)	T returns to original error-maker for another attempt, after TRANSFER. A type of VERIFICATION.	
VERIFICATION (T-F)	T attempts to assure understanding of correction; a new elicitation is implicit or made more explicit.	
EXIT (F)	At any stage in the exchange T may drop correction of the ERROR, though usually not after explicit NEGATION, EMPH., etc.	

Appendix C

INFORMED CONSENT FORM

I agree to participate in a research study of education. I am aware that the purpose of this study is to improve my academic performance and that there is no risk involved in my participation. I understand that I may withdraw from the study at any time.

I will attend four classes and will take part in an anonymous survey (a total of four classes of 1.5 hour each) as part of this study. It has also been made clear by the researcher that my name will not be used in the reports and that the results of the survey will not be mentioned to the teacher. I give my permission to audiotape the classes for the research process.

NAME (print)_____

SIGNATURE_____

DATE_____

INFORMED CONSENT FORM

If there are any questions about the study, you may contact either the researcher:

GULSHEN MUSAYEVA

MA TEFL student

Bilkent University

or the study advisor:

Dr. DAN J. TANNACITO, Director

MA TEFL Program

Bilkent University

INFORMED CONSENT FORM

I agree to participate in a research study of education. I am aware that the purpose of this study is to improve my students' academic performance and that there is no risk involved in my participation. I understand that I may withdraw from the study at any time.

I will teach four classes and will give interviews as part of this study. It has also been made clear by the researcher that my name will not be mentioned in the reports. I give my permission to audiotape the classes for the research process.

NAME(print)_____

SIGNATURE_____

DATE_____

INFORMED COONSENT FORM

If there are any questions about this study, you may contact either the researcher:

GULSHEN MUSAYEVA

MA TEFL Student

Bilkent University

or the study advisor:

Dr. DAN J. TANNACITO, Director

MA TEFL Program

Bilkent University

Appendix D

A Seating Plan

Class A-1

Teacher A

M1	F1	F2	M2	M3	M4	M5	F3	F4	M6	F5	F6	F7	F8	F9	F10	F11

Class A-2

Teacher A

F2	F3	F4	F5	M1	M2	M3	M4	F6	F7	M5	F8	F9	M6	M7	F10	F11
F1																M8

Class B-1

Teacher B

F2	F3	F4	F5	M1	M2	M3	M4	F6	M5	M6	F7	M7	M8	M9	F8	F9
F1						F11	F12	F13	F14							F10

Class B-2

Teacher B

M1	M2	F1	F2	F3	M3	M4	M5	M6	F4	M7	M8	M9	M10	M11

Appendix E

Tally List

	Types of Errors				
Corrective Reactions	Phonol.	Morphol.	Syntactic	Lexical	Semantic
Ignore					
Interrupt					
Delay					
Acceptance					
Attention					
Negation					
Provide					
Reduction					
Expansion					
Emphasis					
Repetition with no change					
Repetition with no change and emphasis					
Repetition with change					
Repetition with change and emphasis					
Explanation/Complex E.					
Repeat					
Loop					
Prompt					
Clue					
Original question					
Altered question					
Questions					
Transfer					
Acceptance*					
Repetitions*					

	Types of Errors				
Corrective reactions	Phonol.	Morphol.	Syntactic	Lexical	Semantic
Explanation*					
Return					
Verification					
Exit					

General layout

1 Leave generous margins, at least at first, to permit legible annotations as transcription gets refined.
2 Double space everything, for the same reason.
3 Number every fifth line in the left-hand margin, *but* do so only in pencil until transcription is complete, unless you are using wordprocessing with automatic line numbering.
4 Identify transcripts at the top of each page with some economical reference number.
5 Number all pages in the top right corner.
6 Identify participants, date and location on a separate sheet (separate in case participants' identities need to be kept confidential).
7 Decide whether to supply pseudonyms for participants' names, or to substitute numbers.
8 Enter participants' pseudonyms, where used, with gender, classroom layout, etc., also on a separate sheet (especially if using computer, since computer analysis must not include this page as data).
9 If using numbers, enter real name and associated numbers (with gender information) on a separate sheet.
10 On transcript pages, justify identifying material to the right, justify text to the left, as below.

Symbols to identify who is speaking:

T	teacher
A	aide
M1	identified male learner, using numbers (M1, M2, etc.)
F1	identified female learner, using numbers (F1, F2, etc.)
Su	use such two-letter abbreviations for pseudonyms, where used (note: gender information may be lost by this method)
M	unidentified male learner
F	unidentified female learner
MV	male voice from, for example, an audio or videotape
FV	female voice, as above
LL	unidentified subgroup of class
LL	unidentified subgroup speaking in chorus
LLL	whole class
LLL	whole class speaking in chorus

Symbols for relationships between lines of transcript

[M3 [F7	use curly brackets to indicate simultaneous speech
[M [T [M	use to indicate same unidentified male speaker
[F [T [F	use to indicate same unidentified female speaker
-T	use hyphen to indicate continuation of a turn without a pause, where overlapping speech intervenes.

Symbols to use in text

[ ]	use for commentary of any kind (e.g. to indicate point in discourse where T writes on blackboard)
[=]	use to introduce a gloss, or translation, of speech
/ /	use for phonemic transcription instead of standard orthography, where pronunciation deviant. Use with gloss if meaning also obscured.
( )	use for uncertain transcription
(/ /)	use for uncertain phonemic transcription
([ ])	use for uncertain gloss
X	incomprehensible item, probably one word only
XX	incomprehensible item of phrase length
XXX	incomprehensible item beyond phrase length
X——X	use optionally at early stages to indicate extent of incomprehensible item, as guide to future attempts to improve transcription
. . . . .	use dots to indicate pauses, giving length in seconds in extreme cases, if potentially relevant to aims
" "	use to indicate anything read rather than spoken without direct text support

Further notes

1 Use indentation to indicate overlap of turns, otherwise start all turns systematically at extreme left of text space.
2 Use hyphen in text to indicate an incomplete word (for example, Come here, plea-)
3 Omit the full stop (period) at the end of a turn, to indicate incompletion (for example, As I was going to)

OTHERWISE PUNCTUATE AS NORMALLY AS POSSIBLE, AS IF WRITING A PLAYSCRIPT

4 Use 'uh' for hesitation fillers, or give phonemic transcription if meaning differences are potentially important.
5 Use underlining for emphasis, if using typewriter, or bold if wordprocessing (for example, Come here!).

GENERAL PRINCIPLE: THE LAW OF LEAST EFFORT

AVOID REDUNDANCY. Use only the conventions that are necessary for your particular purposes, to record the information you are sure you will need. If you are wordprocessing it will always be possible to update the transcript later (though admittedly this will be much more laborious if only typewriting facilities are available).

Dick Allwright
Copacabana
September 1990

Appendix G

Interview Guide Approach

Do you correct learner errors?

Do you think learner errors should be corrected?

When should learner errors be corrected?

How should learner errors be corrected?

Who should correct learner errors?

Appendix H

Questionnaire

Age:_____/yrs___/mo___/

Sex:_____/m____/f_____/

Native language: _____

Educational level (BUSEL): /elem___/inter___/adv____/

Expected department:_____

Length of formal instruction in English: /yrs___/mo___/

Have you visited or lived in an English speaking country (USA, Great Britain, Canada, Australia, other country)?

/never___/once___/several___/

How long were you there? /o___/6 mo___/1 yr___/5 yr___/

What was the purpose of your visit/ stay there?

/study___/tourism___/business___/other___/

Name other foreign languages you know and check your level:

/elem___/inter____/adv___/

Do you like when teacher treats your error?

/yes___/no___/

What type of errors do you think are more important to be treated? Number 1-5 the type of errors that are most important to you (1= most important)

/pronunciation___/morphological-grammatical___/syntactic-grammatical___/vocabulary___/semantic-meaning__/

Please indicate your preferences:

1. Teacher does not correct your error

/no___/some___/a lot___/

2. Teacher interrupts your answer immediately after you make an error

/no___/some___/a lot___/

3. Teacher waits for you to finish your answer, and then corrects your error /no___/some___/a lot___/

4. Teacher shows that he/she accepts your answer

/no___/some___/a lot___/

5. Teacher draws your attention when you make an error

/no ___/some___/a lot___/

6. Teacher does not accept your answer

/no___/some___/a lot___/

7. Teacher gives the correct answer when you can not do it

/no___/some___/a lot___/

8. Teacher corrects only a part of your answer

/no___/some___/a lot___/

9. Teacher enlarges your answer while correcting it

/no___/some___/a lot___/

10. Teacher points to your error using question intonation, stress or repetition /no___some___/a lot___/

11. Teacher repeats your answer without changing the error or leaving it out /no___/some___/a lot___/

12. Teacher repeats your answer without changing the error but uses intonation to point to the error /no___/some___/a lot___/

13. Teacher repeats your answer correcting your error

/no___/some___/a lot___/

14. Teacher repeats your answer correcting your error and using intonation to show the correction /no___/some___/a lot___/

15. Teacher explains your error /no___/some___/a lot___/

16. Teacher asks you to repeat your answer in order to self-correct it

/no___/some___/a lot___/

17. Teacher signals to you to repeat your answer

/no___/some___/a lot___/

18. Teacher asks you to repeat your answer when she/he does not understand it /no___/some___/a lot___/

19. Teacher gives you a cue to repeat your answer

/no___/some___/a lot___/

20. Teacher reacts to your error without correcting it

/no___/some___/a lot___/

21. Teacher repeats her/ his question /no___/some___/a lot___/

22. Teacher changes the structure, but not the meaning of her/ his question

/no___/some___/a lot___/

23. Teacher asks you many questions to get a correct answer

/no___/some___/a lot___/

24. Teacher asks another or several students, or class to correct your

error /no___/some___/a lot___/

25. Teacher shows that she/he accepts their correct answer /no___/some___/a lot___/

26. Teacher asks students to repeat the correct answer /no___/some___/a lot___/

27. Teacher explains why the answer is correct /no___/some___/a lot___/

28. Teacher asks the student who has made the error to answer again /no___/some___/a lot___/

29. Teacher tries to get a correct answer from the student who has made the error /no___/some___/a lot___/

30. Teacher stops correcting you /no___/some___/a lot___/